

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 145 579

EA 010 048

AUTHOR Andrews, Philippa, Ed.
TITLE The Teaching of Educational Management in England and France--Part II. Proceedings of Anglo-French Study Conference 75/13. Coombe Lodge Report Vol 8 No 13.
INSTITUTION Further Education Staff Coll., Blagdon (England).
PUB DATE 75
NOTE 52p.; Best copy available; For a related document, see EA 010 047
AVAILABLE FROM Report Secretary, Coombe Lodge, Blagdon, Bristol, England BS18 6RG (1.10 pounds British currency)
EDRS PRICE MF-\$0.83 Plus Postage. HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrator Education; *Comparative Education; *Educational Administration; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Management Education; School Systems
IDENTIFIERS *England; *France

ABSTRACT

The papers presented here are divided into two parts--an overview of the educational systems of England and France followed by a consideration of the teaching of educational management in each country. Four major areas of concern were reported by syndicate groups made up of representatives from each country--evaluation; coherence; the search for appropriate models for training educational administrators; and the relationship between disciplines, skills, and teaching methods in course design. A closing paper presents an analysis of some of the educational management problems shared by the two countries and of some that are peculiar to each country. (Author/IRT)

 Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
 materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
 to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
 reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
 of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
 via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
 responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
 supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *

ED145579

Coombe
Lodge
Report

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Vol 8 No. 13

Proceedings of Anglo-French Study Conference 75/13
The Teaching of Educational
Management in England
and France — Part II

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

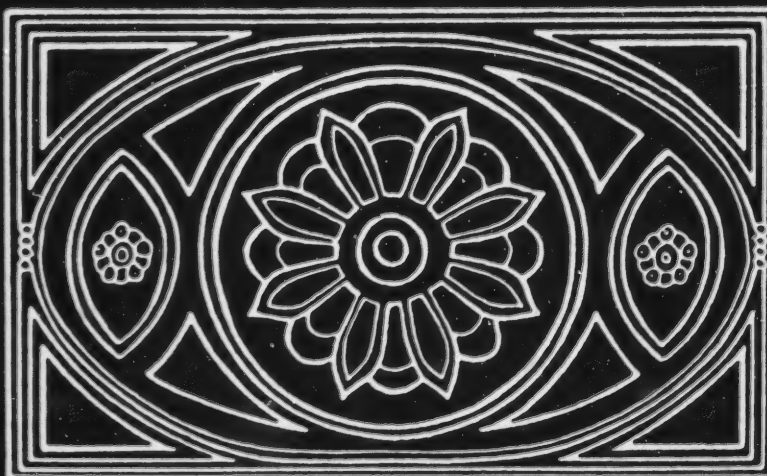
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Further Education
Staff College

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC) AND USERS OF THE ERIC SYSTEM."

EA 010 048



COOMBE LODGE STAFF

Director:	A H Yates
Deputy Director & Director of Studies:	G E Wheeler
Registrar & Clerk to the Governors:	A F Mitchard
Senior Staff Tutor:	D C Spencer
Staff Tutors:	A Albrecht
	C T Ferguson
	J Latcham
	T J Russell
	C M Turner
Head of Resources Group:	D L Parkes
Librarian:	Christine Ball

COOMBE LODGE REPORTS

Editor:	Philippa Andrews
Secretary:	Suzanne Shipsey

Copyright © The Further Education Staff College, 1975.

Printed offset lithography on Crown quarto

CONTENTS

Foreword	852
Introduction: Comparative Issues.	853
Professor B Ford, Director: College and Further Professional Studies, School Of Education, Bristol University.	
The English Education System.	863
C M Turner, Staff Tutor, Coombe Lodge.	
The French Education System.	867
J Beaussier, Professor At INAS, Comparative Educational Administration.	
Problems in the Teaching of Education Management - the English Perspective.	871
J A Mundy, & R H Mercer, Unit for Management in the Public Services, Sheffield Polytechnic.	
Problems in the Teaching of Education Management - the French Perspective.	
I The Training of Educational Administrators.	879
J Baffaut, Professor, Department of Educational Technology, INAS.	
II The Regional Administration Institute.	881
J Gavard, Chief Administrative Officer, Administrative and University Administration Courses, INAS.	
III The Training of Headmasters.	884
G Soubry, 'Inspecteur d'Académie' at Rennes.	
Syndicate Reports.	886
Conference Conclusion.	890
A de Peretti, Director of Research and Teaching Methods, INAS.	
Participants.	894
Bibliography.	896

FOREWORD

French and British educationalists had the opportunity to investigate each others' systems of education management teachings at an Anglo-French conference in 1975 - the first international conference to be held at the Further Education Staff College.

Background documents supplied by participants were produced in Vol. 8. No. 12, and this issue consists of the conference proceedings. They follow the same pattern as the background papers - an overview of each system followed by a consideration of the teaching of education management in each country.

Professor Boris Ford set the tone for the week's discussion in his paper which opened the conference. He considered the changing role of the teacher, emphasising the need for all teachers to develop a sense of shared responsibility for management, and initiated the exploration of the likely effects on education of our contrasting cultures. Four major areas of concern were reported by syndicate groups: evaluation; coherence; the search for appropriate models for training educational administrators; and the relationship between disciplines, skills and teaching methods in course design. Mr Peretti brought the conference to a close with an analysis of some of the education management problems shared by France and England and some which are peculiar to each country.

Change and innovation

"In my experience a conference like this, bringing together a handful of educational experts from two or more countries, is likely to have, or at least to take on, a particular hue, a particular colouration. Whatever it is we actually do in our daily jobs, day after day, hour after hour, for generation after generation of children: when we foregather here or in some other delectable spot on the globe, we become apostles of change, of innovation in education. We are all familiar with the clichés, the jargon: one of the most common, in introductory addresses like mine, being the weary proposition that of the total stock of scientists who have existed in the world, 3/4 or 5/6 or 7/8 of them (you name it!) are alive today, and no doubt, laid end to end, would stretch to the moon. Well, so be it!

We too are likely to be concerned with change, and I offer three quotations which seem to me to contribute something important.* (Incidentally I believe that the OECD has done a great deal in the past 10 years to give intellectual substance to this concept.) I should like to extract from them two propositions. The first proposition is familiar enough: but the second has become unfashionable. The first is that the complexity of the teacher's role in a fairly chaotic world has transformed the job and our view of it. Perhaps I may quote from myself.

"In this developing situation, the role of the teacher is bound to change considerably. The whole learning situation, including assessment and working relations between teachers and children, will be far more attentive to individual needs and capabilities. The teacher's technical skills will have to be based on "a mastery of the sources and methods of knowledge" and of new modes of learning; and they will have to include the ability to work closely with parents and social workers so as to "remove blockages to learning and to stimulate motivation". Clearly this degree of change will depend on a change in the attitudes of teachers themselves: towards a greater understanding of the process of child development and the relations between school, home and community, and (which is perhaps the most

* See Appendix

difficult change of all for traditionally trained teachers) towards the concept of team planning and collaboration in the learning process and away, in large measure, from the security and authority of the one-teacher classroom."

And so, in my opinion, the teacher of tomorrow is likely to be a 'manager', planning and deploying an unprecedented range of resources and techniques, attending to 'objectives', evaluating 'processes'. But this teacher-manager of tomorrow will be able to succeed as an educator only if she or he has discovered how to be continually alive and how to bring others to life. Which means that my second and less popular proposition is that every teacher must to some degree be a charismatic teacher. The two are not in competition - they are aspects of a common concern, which is how to manage learning and teaching situations so that they are sensitive to the motivations and individual human needs of the members of the community.

The scope of educational management

Thus we are moving towards a situation, I believe, in which we have to conceive of management in education as extending far beyond the training and appointment of authority-figures like Chief Education Officers, Recteurs, Heads, Directeurs, Inspecteurs and the rest: to the training of each individual teacher to perform a management task. And because this is also an intimately and creatively human task, it becomes a matter, not of training, but of education. I am convinced, in other words, that the business which has brought us together for this week is not just concerned with the teaching of educational management to the chosen few; but with how to communicate a sense of management to all teachers. The two are surely interdependent. And they are interdependent not only for pragmatic and technical reasons: but for moral reasons. Because education (at least of the kind I hope we are interested in) can flourish only in a community and that presupposes responsibilities appropriately shared: shared between head and teacher, and between teacher and teacher; and also, of course, between adult and child.

It is for this reason that I think we must be wary of schemes of line management and of the fashionable tendency to resort to flow charts and Venn-like diagrams, which all too often, when probed, seem to be masking processes of manipulation. The inveterate tendency in education is for authority to harden into the authoritarian; which means that the unceasing task of educational management is to evoke both participation and critical self-awareness.

If my remarks have had a moral overtone, that is, of course, a British failing on such occasions: just as a French introduction would surely have had an unnervingly philosophical flavour. Whereas we are to be concerned,

as your papers* have been admirably concerned, with defining a somewhat new task and working out its practical implications. How do we educate and train educational managers; and I have added the further question, whom are we to conceive of as managers? Are we designing for ourselves an elite task, educating cadres? Are these to be the people who will, who may, go on to management posts if they have done well enough on our courses (and if we, obviously, have done well enough by them)? Or are they people who have already been earmarked for management, and who come to us for a special topdressing? Or are we ultimately concerned with all teachers and their education, the educational managers of tomorrow, as well as with those who will have additional managerial responsibilities? In which case we may feel we have to talk about initial as well as in-service education; and that, you may well decide, would be to broaden the scope of the task, and certainly of our discussions, out of all proportion. Perhaps so. But I still think we must recognise the wider context of our subject if we are to examine its details in a responsible way. In any case, when we come to the details of management education, you are the experts and I really must not trample ill-shod across your terrain.

'France v England'

What I would like to do, however, is to ask some broad questions about the Franco-British character of this conference. Asked to take a hard look and then pin a French or British flag on the bosom of each person in this conference room, I suspect we would guess the correct nationality of at least 75% of these bosoms; and we might go on, with some confidence, to provide a profile of these the image is getting out of hand! Similarly, if asked to provide a profile of our respective educational bosoms, we would swiftly say:

French

centralised?
rigid?
bureaucratic?
discipline-centred?
generalist?

exam-oriented?
elitist-cum-comprehensive?
etc., etc.

English

de-centralised?
largely autonomous?
participative-democracy?
child-centred?
specialist?

* In Vol.8 No.12

The differences are, or seem to be, enormous and they must involve profound contrasts of style, of self-image, of readiness to innovate, or to accept responsibility: all of which will greatly affect the way a manager will undertake his task and the tempo with which he will get it done.

Yet it may be that these contrasts within our system are deceptive, at least if measured by the speed with which we attain given destinations. Can we say that England has advanced further towards the ideal of mass higher education than France in the past 25 years? Or towards a restructuring on egalitarian lines of secondary education? Or towards an understanding of the affective as well as the cognitive element in the learning process? Or towards the reshaping of relations between school and community, and between teachers and parents? I am not at all sure.

And so, when we come to more specifically management questions, what do we see as the possibilities for change, and for "managing change" within these contrasting cultures? Does autonomy promote adventuresomeness, or caution and nervousness? May not remoteness from the authoritarian centre leave the individual institution with considerable latitude for manoeuvre? How does this compare to the creation of very many smallish but powerful Local Authority principalities, with staffs of inspectors and advisers, and of locally appointed Managers and Governors? Will the de-centralised system not find itself compelled to assume considerable power and authority, however much masked, at the centre, (e.g. the assumption of great and almost unchecked power and authority by the DES) and also to set up a centralised curriculum planning and innovation apparatus (e.g. the Schools Council)? What are likely to be the mood, dynamism and power of the teachers as full professionals, and of their associations and unions? What will be their impact upon the culture of the individual institution? Within which culture is the individual institution likely to be more susceptible to parent influence?

In particular, are there likely to be radical differences in the respective concepts of educational managers and in the methods of training/educating them? Note the well-entrenched establishment of professional training for the Civil Service in France. Will French models be drawn from this experience in contrast to the probability that the English models will be drawn from industrial management training? Is it probable that one is likely to be more philosophical and the other more socially/scientifically orientated than the other in concept and curriculum? What of the interaction between theory and practice? And what may be the influence of the existing apparatuses of in-service education?

Conclusions

My experience of working in or with a number of international organisations has left me with at least two convictions. The first is that the climate of ideas, and the vocabulary of clichés, change in a mysterious way on a continental, even inter-continental, scale rather than simply within national frontiers. For example, look at the Faure Report, *Learning to Be** which was written by a committee of eight nationalities; on the whole it represents a vast advance on anything that such a group would have produced before the Second World War; it is a distinctly progressive document and was, as far as I know, unanimous. However different our systems may be, we find a greater stock of common thinking than one might expect. Undoubtedly meetings of this kind help to remind us of this fact, and thus lessen (I hope) our parochialism and our pride. My second conviction, however - and I say this without any criticism of anyone here (least of all my heroic interpreter), is that such meetings need to be conducted in a common language or languages; or if that is impossible, with simultaneous translation. Close, attentive discussion, which alone facilitates the positive flow of ideas and sympathies, is almost bound to be lost otherwise. Management is communication, and the use of language is a crucial area of our subject. So I hope, if there are to be further meetings on this theme, that we will somehow solve this problem. And I certainly believe our success in the next few days will be measured by the speed with which we arrange follow-up meetings: for we can only hope to uncover the edge of this enormously important subject.

*E. Faure et al. *Learning To Be*. UNESCO. London 1972.

Professor Ford provided conference members with notes which contained the following quotations on the emancipation of the school and the teacher.

"Education has two dimensions. It has to prepare for changes, show people how to accept them and benefit from them, create a dynamic, non-conformist, non-conservative frame of mind. Concurrently, it has to play the part of an antidote to the many distortions within man and society. For democratic education must be able to provide a remedy to frustration, to the depersonalization and anonymity in the modern world and, through lifelong education, reduce insecurity and enhance professional mobility."

E. Faure et al. Learning to be, UNESCO, London, 1972.

"In the 1970s we are no longer thinking in terms of the choice to remain in school the choice to opt for one or other of an arbitrary offering of curricula; already there are colleges and even schools in England, France and Germany where students, parents and others participate in the design of their own curricula, and there is a developing pedagogy that approves the policy of seeking to mobilize the participants in the educational process, both to increase the intrinsic meaning and value of personal learning and to allow an extrinsic significance to emerge from the interaction of curriculum and society. Such a conception implies attaching value to both the manifestation of individual creative choice and action by the learner and, at a political level, the furtherance of ideological positions or group interests within educational systems by learners, teachers and others holding values relating to education. While such activity is not without precedent, the scale, intensity and persistence of new forms of collective activity constitute a new level of politicization of education, a public struggle over its values and their allocation within the system which cannot be without long-term educational consequences. It is within this context of cultural pluralism that the critical issues of teacher education must necessarily be reviewed

If it is possible to trace a shift in the centre of gravity of educational policies in the three societies from the economic-instrumental along a continuum leading to the social-expressive, this is not to say that such value changes are yet widely evident in their educational systems. The critical point of transfer seems to lie in the expectations held for the teacher's role in education that respond to the values of democratization. It is clear that the traditional authoritarianism of the teacher in the selective secondary school, his trust in his subject as this has been handed on to him, his knowledge-centred approach to teaching and his relative ignorance of the educational sciences in their theories, methods and applications, as well as his social relationship with his clients, left him ill-prepared to promote educational reforms involving social and psychological sensitivities in response to individual, to culturally diverse and particularly to socially disadvantaged pupils. The teacher is necessarily caught in a conflict of values, but we have to consider to what extent different perceptions of both teaching and teacher education reflect this cultural pluralism and are reflected in the strategic decisions of teacher education policy-makers."

James Lynch, H. Dudley Plunkett: Teacher Education and Cultural Change. Allen & Unwin. 1973.

".....there is likely to be a "shift in emphasis from teaching as the transmission of knowledge to teaching as the organisation of knowledge", and to the teacher as "the manager of the means to acquire knowledge" - this formulation is infinitely more satisfactory, partly because it is far more complex, than the naive antithesis which one still meets quite frequently (even in OECD papers) to the effect that the teacher's task is not the transmission of knowledge but the development of the child. However, this move towards the encouragement of self-directed methods will need to be "carefully monitored, especially in the case of children coming from culturally deprived backgrounds". In this developing situation, the role of the teacher is bound to change considerably. The whole learning situation, including assessment and working relations between teachers and children, will be far more attentive to individual needs and capabilities. The teacher's technical skills will have to be based on "a mastery of the sources and methods of knowledge" and of new modes of learning; and they will have to include the ability to work closely with parents and social workers so as to "remove blockages to learning and to stimulate motivation". Clearly this degree of change will depend on a change in the attitudes of teachers themselves: towards a greater understanding of the process of child development and the relations between school, home and community, and (which is perhaps the most difficult change of all for traditionally trained teachers) towards the concept of team planning and collaboration in the learning process and away, in large measure, from the security and authority of the one-teacher classroom.

"It is when the move towards the co-operation between teachers is combined with the new emphasis on the part to be played by the learner in his own development that the radical changes in the teaching role becomes fully apparent. Indeed the term "teacher" becomes misleading, for the teaching that remains is primarily concerned with equipping the child with the skills necessary for self-directed learning to occur. But even this is supplemented by activity designed to motivate remove obstacles to learning and ensure that individuals have acquired the basic knowledge necessary for further work. With older children the management of learning resources, individual scheduling and counselling may take priority. But at each stage of the educational process a high level of skill is required and a new title such as 'educator' may be more appropriate than the term 'teacher'."

Thus the actual classroom job has become, or is now at least perceived to be, infinitely more complex, and it draws on an infinitely wider range of knowledge and abilities than before. Simultaneously, the teacher is expected to understand far more about the interplay between school and community, between learning and social and home background, and also far more about the school as a social institution. It is true, at the same time, that people's disappointments about schooling are correspondingly large, so that teachers quickly become the whipping boys of society, either for their ineffectuality or for their complicity in the face of a corrupt or at least diseased social order. But either way, the evidence undoubtedly justifies the Faure Commission's conviction that "interest in education has never been greater. Among parties, generations and groups, it has become the subject of controversy which often takes on the dimensions of political or ideological battles. Education has become one of the favourite themes of empirical or scientific social criticism."

Boris Ford, Universities and Teachers' Colleges - A Study of Changing Relationships: An Overview. OECD 1974.

Discussion Arising

The discussion which followed Professor Ford's paper had two main themes: The integration of teacher training with the universities and FE, and whether the industrial management model could be applied to education management.

The first comment from the floor welcomed Professor Ford's suggestion that the contrasts between the French and British systems of education might be deceptive and that there were strong common elements. The speaker cited the creation of higher education institutions outside the universities and pressure for participation. Professor Ford was asked to comment on the likely provision of teacher education in France and Germany in the next year or two and to identify some general trends in Western Europe which he might envisage affecting educational processes.

Replying, Professor Ford warned that he was not an expert on the training of teachers in France or Germany. He noted a contrast between current trends in the UK and the rest of Europe. On the continent, there was a tendency for teacher training to be brought within and under the supervision of universities, while in the UK it was being separated from the universities quite forcibly. A second striking difference was that in Britain there had been an attempt to achieve an integrated structure - integration between academic and educational theory and practice. Professor Ford could not identify a single system in the rest of Europe in which the various elements of teacher education were integrated in this way. In most cases the practical experience in schools and indeed the management of that experience was quite separate from the management and dispensation of theory, which took place in a separate institution. For instance, in Germany, practical teaching experience was operated entirely separately, at a different time, and under a different management. Professor Ford thought that the process which teacher education was now facing in the UK would destroy much of the integration which had been achieved.

A member commented that the notion of integration in teacher training was one which was now emerging strongly in France. It had first begun in 1968 at Amiens, under rather special circumstances, and was essentially for elementary teachers but the possibility of its being extended to other sectors always existed and the present Minister of Education seemed likely to set up similar systems of training for teachers in other types of school.

A participant from the UK could not agree that the departure of the colleges of education from the universities would necessarily lead to a move away from integration. In his view, the universities had not always been the custodians of the integrated approach. Professor Ford agreed that, on the whole, the universities had not, when viewed 'at large', been very enlightened centres of the concept of the integration of theory and practice. But it had been something of a revolution to bring professional institutions - the colleges

of education - under the orbit of the universities and to establish schools of education to promote the relationship between the universities and the academic departments of the colleges. As colleges became separated from the universities Professor Ford thought there would be a radical divorce between professional education and the research and theoretical work for which the universities should ideally be responsible. This separation would mean that the teachers in training in the colleges would in most cases be thrown on their own resources and be out of touch with the academic and research centres of their subjects.

Moving to the second theme of the discussion, a member commented that it would be regrettable if education management were taught on the lines of industrial management. As Mr. Soubry had pointed out in his papers*, most education managers were teachers and still, especially in the UK, retained an educational function. Secondly, as Professor Ford had said, management had a moral function, and it often appeared that this was neglected in industrial management training. It was important, therefore, that models should be created for educational management training which were directed at education itself, and not oriented towards either industry or the public services.

Professor Ford, replying, said that industrial and public service management models were being applied to education because this was where the bulk of management experience came from. If we did not want to draw on these sources, how would we mobilise sufficient wealth of activity within education to provide our own models? Despite the fact that over the past 10 to 15 years there had been in the UK a considerable quantity of institutional fusion - the bringing together of secondary schools to form comprehensives, the amalgamation of colleges of art with colleges of technology or polytechnics for example - there was not a single serious worthwhile research study of the management problems of fusion.

Finally, a member suggested that Professor Ford was too optimistic in thinking all teachers could be trained to be managers. It was more useful to take an elitist approach and train a small number really well. Professor Ford replied that all teachers had to be helped to reach some management understanding. This would not be achieved until we had trained the teachers of teachers, so it was necessary to begin with the few before we tackled the total number. But it was the total number who were the final target.

*In Vol.8 No.12

"I have with some boldness formulated nine areas of incipient development in the English education system.* I have done so because if we are to consider the problem of training educational managers then we must concern ourselves not with the position over the last five years, or the position now, but the estimated position over the coming years when our newly trained managers are back in the field. So our training must be based on some guesses and forecasts and faith in our judgement of this.

I would like now to discuss briefly some of the points I make in the commentary:

(1) Under the first point I claim that there will be an increase in demand for education that arises principally although not solely from consumer demand. We must separate out two issues. In the field of compulsory education - from 5-16 years of age - where the wishes of the consumer are not really relevant, for demographic reasons it is certain that numbers will fall by about 15% in primary schools by 1980. In the areas where there can be choice - before five in nursery education and after 16 in further and higher education, I forecast that demand will increase and so the managers of institutions in these areas will commonly face an expanding enterprise. Trends over the last decade in these areas show a great rise in demand, for example the provision of education for the under fives has almost doubled, rising from 10.3 in 1961 to 18.2 in 1973, and in the same period there has been about a 50% increase in higher education provision.

Paradoxically, however, some managers will face the problems of shrinking or even closing institutions or departments, because if the growth comes mainly from consumer demands different areas of study will be favoured at different times and some courses or types of institution will lose support as others gain it. This is, of course, already apparent in the decline of some science and technology courses.

(2) The drive towards equality has been centred on institutional arrangements of providing universal comprehensive schools at secondary level. This has been a faltering business and as I suggest in the figures given in my commentary, is nowhere yet complete but it goes steadily forward year by year. More interesting is the great variety within the comprehensive system

* In Vol. 8, No. 12.

which have been instituted in the different Local Authorities.

What is now clear - not that it should ever have been in much doubt - is that institutional arrangements do not in themselves get rid of disadvantages for all students. More attention has been given now to the disadvantages of streaming in schools, the poorer staffing and resource allocation to schools in poor urban areas and so on.

But it is becoming clear that the message of the American Coleman Report - that we cannot get rid of disadvantaged schools without substantially restructuring society - is now becoming accepted by many young teachers, and the manager of the future will be contending with a powerful faction of radical thinking in his staff whose values may well be very different from those of many of the older staff.

(3) The arrangement of our institutions into a hierarchy of prestige is now deep-rooted in our system and is not likely to change in the near future. Both the Public Schools and Oxford and Cambridge are likely to survive any changes of the next few years undiminished in their monopoly of prestige

The world is playing a game with Eton
And the world as usual is soundly beaten.*

The one thing successive governments seem to have kept to in the preserving of the University as solely a provider of degree courses. All other developments have been at the next level, of polytechnics, Colleges of Education and Colleges of Technology. It is here that the ferment of change is likely to be over the next few years.

(4) The autonomy of the school/college and the individual teacher seem likely to me to come under increasing threat. This will partly arise from the implementation of new management devices - staff development programmes, appraisal systems, MBO, and partly from the necessity to rationalise at an institutional, local and national level in order to make the best use of scarce resources in a time of scarcity.

However the strength of the tradition of the independence of the teacher and the school should be strong enough to ensure that this will be a considerable battle, the outcome of which is not clear. We can be sure that anyone managing an institution will face not only the problems of high discretionary decision making in uncertain conditions which has characterised our schools for so long, but also various kinds of challenges to this autonomy.

*from R. Wilkinson - The Prefects.

(5) The clash between the powers of the local authorities and its Central Government is not one upon which I feel I can make any forecasts with any degree of competence.

The paper by Mr. Browning* shows the present system of powers, which leaves the newly enlarged local authorities with very substantial powers of sorting out their own local education systems.

But the central government is providing most of the money and my impression is that it is becoming more and more concerned to remove unnecessary local variations.

A test case for the power of local authorities is the current defiance of a handful of them to the government's directive to produce plans for the changeover to comprehensive secondary education.

(6) Corporate management was much in the air when a party from INAS visited the County Council at Taunton in 1974. It is still much in the air though dramatic things have happened at Taunton. In his paper, Mr. Browning has listed the members of the Management Group which is responsible corporately for the production of a coherent plan that spreads across all the work and all the departments of the Council. It cannot make decisions of course - the elected Council or its committees do that.

They do make sure that planning is rational and total. In such a process the room for manoeuvre by individuals, the striking out along novel idiosyncratic lines becomes more difficult for a Education Officer and, if the system is used in our largest colleges, this applies also to the Head of Department or individual teacher.

(7) I will not repeat what I wrote in the background paper on Curriculum Reform, except to say that I regard this as the central area of management concern. This is where great changes could occur that make the management of these institutions a very new business indeed.

This is not simply a matter of managing an institution which is trying out all sorts of new methods though this in itself creates problems; it is a crucial debate about who is going to decide what is taught and how is it learned - students and parents, who have in the past had little say, will certainly be entering into new kinds of relationships with the managers of schools and colleges.

(8) There is little more I want to add to what I said in my commentary. We have to train managers to run larger kinds of institutions, and particularly in the schools there will be difficulties in persuading Head teachers that this is a very different job from being a classroom teacher writ large. I hope incidentally that a rather more critical look is taken at the value of increased size - we have followed the policy in faith rather than anything else.

* In Volume 8. No 12.

Although the size of secondary schools have been increasing, the average size of comprehensive schools has been falling for some time, and has now just about levelled out.

(9) If the major pressure on all managers is now to be cost-effective, not to waste a scrap of our scarce resources, then one can expect a great deal of rationalisation to cut out duplication, overlap and waste.

I suspect that this will mean much attention by the DES and Government to the overlap area of 16-19. This seems to me the major area for tidying up. I think we will also see an increase in all class sizes, the increase of teaching hours by staff may be inevitable, and that must mean the closure of some colleges of departments.

What I have done in this commentary is to take an evolutionary view rather than a radical view of the future. I have not assumed that the country will go bankrupt, or that there will be a collapse of public order followed by revolution, or even that the educational system will make some dramatic departures from present practice. Any of these may well happen.

Some possible developments of a more radical nature were suggested by Professor Boris Ford and conference members in the discussion which followed his paper. If students come to control their own curriculum, and the community regains control of the institutions, then we will have to rethink the whole system of management and organisation of education."

preconceived
ideas

"Let us begin by examining the preconceived ideas we hold about each others' education systems because otherwise they will be obstacles to the progress of the conference. For example, we French sometimes think that the battle of Waterloo was won on the playing fields of Eton'. A more serious general view I have developed through meeting DES personnel, HMIs and other people in the educational world is that the key to the English education system is partnership - a word for which I have been unable to find any satisfactory French translation.

The British, on the other hand, seem to hold three concepts about French education: first, that we are providing a secondary education whose primary object is to produce Nobel prize winners in literature; secondly, that there is a concentration on 'les grandes écoles' and the 'Corps d'Élite' as described in recent articles in the Sunday Times and New Society. This elite comes from a part of the education system quite outside the universities and aims to produce people who will perform functions quite different from the work done by university graduates. It seems to us that there is a certain envy of this aspect of French education in the UK. The third preconceived idea which the English seem to hold about our education system is that it is totally centralised. It is useful, I think, to present these preconceived notions at this early stage in the conference because then we will have all week to fight against them.

Some years ago when I was teaching at Nanterre, which had barely recovered from the events of 1968, I took a party of mature students to England and visited a college of education. The students were asked what parts of the French education system had been adopted from other countries and were quite unable to give any reply. This was not simply due to ignorance on their part. For example in a recent official document, M. René Haby, Minister of Education, commenting of what parts of his new project were inspired by foreign example, said that while some similarities might arise, they were simply due to the accident that some countries at the same stage of evolution have the same problems and come up with the same solutions. This is a demonstration of the ethnocentrism that prevents us from taking from other countries examples which would be useful to us. Let us, however, accept for the time being at least, the hypothesis that some things in the French educational system happen to be similar to aspects of educational systems in other countries because these countries are at similar stages of development. Let us also think of the UK as the link between European and North American systems of education. Three types of convergence may be identified: spontaneous convergence; desired convergence (ie organised and presented as targets); and institutionalised convergence which is spread by organisations such as the OECD.

To conclude this first part of my introduction to the French system of education, let us accept the hypothesis of a community of problems - a community of uncertainty - a community which is created by our all being faced with similar questions and problems to answer. Coomes, in 1967, spoke of the world educational crisis and more recently, in 1974 Halek referred to the failure of the whole educational system - on a international scale, affecting not only Western Europe or the Atlantic Community but also the socialist countries of the East including China before the Cultural Revolution.

France since
1945

Before moving to the second part of my paper I should like to list some of the important changes which have taken place in French society since 1945:

- 1) the decrease in the number of births and the complete end to immigration since November 1974 because of the generally unhealthy economic climate;
- 2) major changes since 1945 in the occupations of the population. The number of people employed in agriculture has greatly decreased. There are also many fewer small businessmen and an increase in the number of salaried workers and in the number of people employed in the service industries;
- 3) an increase in the number of people living in towns since 1945. 75% of the population now live in towns, which is a departure from the traditional population distribution of France.

How have these changes affected education? Between 1945 France faced great problems in dealing with the quantitative aspects of accommodation and staff for the number of pupils who were demanding education - and all this in schools which had to a large extent been destroyed during the war. Added to this was the increasing social demand for education. Fairly modest working class families became convinced of the importance of providing longer education for their children.

An important - though underestimated and insufficient - development in French education has been the creation of technical and professional education which turns out qualified workers at all levels including middle rank executives. These people were needed to put into effect the various plans of the French government since 1945 regarding education. The first reform since the end of the first world war did not come until 1959. It was made necessary by the huge pressure of numbers upon the system. In retrospect, it is generally agreed that this reform did not in fact change the education system in any major way in any respect. The next reform came in 1963-1964 and was the beginning of an attempt to change the old tripartite system of education into a single structure in which all pupils between the ages of 11 and 15 would be educated in the same type of school. But even in their new buildings the new schools which were erected from 1963-1964 onwards managed to retain the old tripartite system. The problem was - and to some extent still is - how to put an end to it, for it confirms and reproduces a type of society which might otherwise be expected to change. The clandestine continuing existence of the tripartite system is however actively reinforced and maintained by teachers who have vested interests in one part or another of the old three tier system.

A third reform came in 1965 with the creation of the Instituts Universitaires de Technologie (IUT) which dispenses two year courses of higher education after the end of secondary education following the Baccalaureat.

After the events of May 1968 came the huge and rapid development of the universities provoked by the Guidelines Act of November 1968 (loi d'orientation) which was to change the face of higher education in France. Its three main themes were the autonomy of the universities, their interdisciplinary nature and student participation in their organisation.

As far as equality of opportunity is concerned the present reform being proposed does at last recognise officially that equality of opportunity is something to be aimed at. It has not, however, given access to higher education for young people from working class backgrounds - this still remains very limited.

Looking back, we can see that some of our past beliefs have been delusions. In 1945 we thought that all that was necessary for people to succeed in the system was for them to actually get into it. By 1960 we had come to realise that this was not so - that to succeed in the system demanded special aptitudes that not everyone possessed and therefore all opportunities offered had to be exploited. Now, in the 1970s we know that it is not enough to get a qualification from a university or elsewhere because not all qualifications have the same value and the same qualifications do not always have the same value for the different people who have them.

Sociologists have termed the phenomena to which I have referred 'the reproduction and reinforcement of social structures'. Currently, just before the publication of the seventh national plan, the emphasis is on equality of opportunity - particularly in regard to simple poverty - to be dealt with not as Christian charity but as a social need - especially as far as education is concerned.

future
problems

Let us now look at the sort of evolution we might expect over the next few years. The first, common to us all, is now to bring into both the education system and into society that quarter to one fifth of our population who are underprivileged.

Secondly, there is a slowing down in the rate of growth of the school and college population. Except for the very gifted, whom we hesitate to identify too overtly because to do so would be to show yet again a belief in the superiority of certain classes in society, the effort is by and large to dissuade people from staying in at school. Although the school leaving age was raised in 1972 to 16 years, this has not in fact been very effective and now there are new laws which find ways round the raising of the school leaving age.

Thirdly, our systems are aimed at children and we do not seem to have been able to create educational institutions which respond to the needs of today's adolescents. All countries in Europe are seeking structures and methods which will cater for 13-18 and 18-23 year olds, yet after 50 years of trying we have not been able to find any structure which will respond to their needs - needs which are often ill-defined, uncertain, ill-expressed and changing - but needs which nevertheless exist.

Fourthly, there is the concept of life-long education. In 1971 the law on life-long education was introduced. This was to be education open to all people of all age groups, which aimed to change people's professional abilities, to open society to them and to provide for social mobility. It was a supplement to the general dissuasion exercised on people not to remain in full-time education. The expressed aims of the 1971 law were to give new opportunities for further vocational qualifications and to provide a general widening of cultural perspectives for people who had not made the most of their full-time education. But, like many projects undertaken with the best intentions, this law has not in fact made much difference to the people for whom it was intended to cater - the people who needed to improve their professional qualifications. It has, in fact, been of most benefit to middle and often higher rank executives in industry. The State has been able to find a source of finance for this life long education - the firms themselves - indeed it is the firms who get the most benefit from life-long education.

A fifth problem for the future is financial - administrators at all level will have much reduced financial means at their command. They will have to manage larger, more complex and diversified institutions with more technical material contained within them. They will no longer be their own masters free to make their own decisions and apply them but will have to make the most of the reduced resources in terms of finance and personnel at their disposal. The administrator will no longer be a decision maker but will become an organiser of decision making. It will no longer be the decisions which are most important to the administrator, but the means he has to implement decisions.

The ability to define what means are needed to attain certain given objectives is one that is generally lacking among educational administrators. This has led to the credibility gap in France between for instance what the Government announces as its objectives in the reform of an educational system and the evident lack of means to undertake such changes and achieve the set objectives. The era of thinking about and aiming for overall blanket changes of the educational system has gone. What we require now are networks of change agents. France has always had a Minister ready to give his name to what he hopes will be considered THE reform - the definitive reform - the reform which will work and beyond which there will be no further problems. To believe that this can happen is an illusion - and a costly one."

The background paper distributed before the conference* outlined a set of problems which face all teachers of education management - French, English or any other nationality. The fact that attempts to come to terms with these problems were given from the point of view of one team from Sheffield illustrates one great difference between England and France in the teaching of education management. France has a national institute which plays a key role in organizing the teaching of education management. The former director of the Institute, Monsieur Minot, once referred to it as "La maison mère" which relayed help to the regional centres. In England there are a number of institutions which offer courses in education management, and although there may be informal links between some of them, there is no single policy or method. In fact some of the English people here have met for the first time at this conference. Common problems in teaching there may be, universal answers there are not.

Our English colleagues must forgive us for concentrating on our interpretation of the problems - but we look forward to learning from them of their courses during the course of the week and the French will see that there are points of view other than the Sheffield Polytechnic one!

Rather than go over all the seven problems listed in the background paper we would prefer to select two of those problems, treat them in more detail, and discuss two further questions. Therefore we will examine the following questions:

- I What are we trying to achieve?
- II How do we organize and structure the learning environment
 in order to achieve our goals?
- III How are our goals, and the way in which we organize
 learning, legitimized?
- IV What are the significant points which come from an attempt
 to answer the three questions we have just asked?

* In Volume 8 No. 12

I What are we trying to achieve?

The over-riding aim of our courses is best described as the effective management of education via the professional and personal development of our students. In trying to achieve this aim we base our teaching on the following propositions:

- (1) effective management of educational institutions can improve the quality of educational practice;
- (2) good management, like medicine and teaching, can be learnt via the development of appropriate cognitive and personal skills;
- (3) education management is best taught as a post-experience study to those who are already in a management position;
- (4) we must ensure that theory and practice inform each other;
- (5) a class of students drawn from various sectors of the education system, while having many needs in common, will have much to learn from each other and, once back in their own jobs, will be more sensitive to problems in other sectors of education and more conscious of the articulation of their own sector with others - hence the selection policy described in the background paper;
- (6) long courses, because of the depth and rigour of study and practice they are able to offer, enable students to perform their own job more effectively and also prepare them for future posts;
- (7) our former students will act as catalysts within the education system;
- (8) short courses, research and consultancy are most effectively developed against a background of continuous testing out of theory and an examination of its relation to practice.

Some of these propositions are unlikely to be accepted by all the people here; some are a reflection of the fact that we work in a Polytechnic (rather than at Coombe Lodge for example); some are very much a reflection of our own philosophy; some take into account the diversity of the managerial systems and allocation of responsibilities with the English education service.

Specifically then our courses are designed not for particular categories of manager but for managers with rather different needs. The Diploma is a general education management course; the MSc focusses on the theme of the management of planned change in education (see the background paper for the aims we listed for each of these courses).

Since our students are so diverse and have such varying needs we emphasize the quality of the process experienced by the students. We believe that it

is impossible to divorce method from process, from evaluation and from content. In fact the interaction of process evaluation and content is the method or, to stand McLuhan's dictum on its head, "The message is the medium".

What then are the characteristics of the Sheffield process?

1. Managerial competence should be a central concept: theory must be justified in terms of its relevance to the practising manager.
Problem: what theory is of most relevance?
2. Emphasis on knowledge and understanding to aid careful diagnosis and the ability and skills to take appropriate action in a particular situation.
Problem: what knowledge and understanding - and how is this effectively translated into action?
3. The transfer of theoretical insights and learning into application at the individual levels is built into the programme rather than left to chance.
Problem: how can we make the course practical, iterative and transactional?
4. Genuinely professional development implies opportunity for personal development as well.
Problem: how to take into account varying student needs?
5. The curriculum should be sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of individual students.
Problem: how can this best be done without distorting the programme?
6. The programme is itself an example of education management and therefore a learning opportunity for students.
Problem: how can students be encouraged to exploit this opportunity?
7. Students must examine critically the assumptions - social science, managerial and educational - that they bring to their decision-making.
Problem: how is this best done?
8. While a certain minimum standard of absolute performance is demanded in order to qualify for the MSc or Diploma student assessment is based on student development.
Problem: what criteria are to be used in assessment?
9. Whereas the philosophy, structure and scope of the programme remain the same from year to year there will be continuous development of new ways of putting it into practice.
Problem: how do we maintain a balanced development of staff?

II How do we organize and structure the learning environment in order to achieve our goals?

- or in other words - What is our message?

Many students go home at weekends, local students do not wish to stay late in the evening therefore it is important for us to develop a cohesive supporting group fairly quickly. This attempt starts at the point of selection when we are concerned to get a diverse class, to generate commitment, to give students as much information as possible.

Once in Sheffield there is a structured induction period which, among other things, sets out:

- (1) to facilitate habits of collaborative learning, group responsibility for individual learning and self and group-initiated learning;
- (2) to identify the resources of the group in terms of experience and expertise;
- (3) to explore the expectations of students and staff.

We believe that the social and informal life of students is of central importance as it facilitates the creation of a learning climate outside the classroom. For this reason there is time for students to talk, work and relax without being too pressured by formal work-load. There is also a student/staff society which has both an academic and a social programme.

The prevailing staff culture also makes for easy staff-student relations. We have already stressed the importance of our development as a team. This too starts with the selection process for new staff. Once in the team there is opportunity to share in all the team activities (for details see background paper). Thus selection of students and policy for staff development together, we hope, create favourable opportunities for learning.

Perhaps we can illustrate the way in which we attempt to fulfil the goals listed earlier.

1. Managerial competence as a guiding principle: justification of theory

The range of theory taught is defined by the nature of the functions an education manager performs. A manager will perform certain activities with respect for example to curriculum management, personnel management and the management of change. These activities take place in an environmental context in which resources and values interact to constrain or enable the adoption of policy. This outline is not a teaching scheme but it limits the scope of what we consider to be essential.

2. Knowledge and understanding to aid diagnosis of particular situations.

Theory on its own is not enough - it has to be applied to specific situations. On the Diploma this is done via case studies, the project and problems which the students bring to the course. On the MSc there is a deliberate attempt to test out the relevance of theory via a field study. This part of the course will, we hope, make a significant contribution to education management theory.

3. Transfer of learning is built into the course.

This may be accomplished by using the student group as a resource, by case exercises, through the use of individual assignments that are directly related to the student's work situation, through experiential work and field study and also via the project - for details of this see the background paper.

4. Personal as well as professional development.

There is opportunity in the course of the programme:

- for students to try things out, to attempt tasks in their areas of relative weakness and to experiment in their behaviour;
- for students to learn to investigate and, where appropriate, to accept ambiguities and uncertainties;
- for growth within a supportive environment, in which students can accept responsibility for their own and others' learning.

Counselling, tutorial help, close relationships between staff and student and between staff themselves, between us and various Local Education Authorities and schools enable us to meet the needs of individual students.

5. A flexible curriculum to meet the needs of individual students.

Although there is a core programme for both the MSc and the Diploma we recognise:

- the importance of a degree of negotiated self-direction by the student;
- the diagnosis of his own needs in the light of learning resources available to him on the programme, including students on other courses;
- it is important that students have an opportunity to assess their own strengths and weaknesses within the management situation.

The MSc, because it focusses on a particular theme is not quite so flexible as the Diploma.

6. The programme as an example of education management.

Students are encouraged to participate in the management of the programme and to examine the values inherent in the course philosophy and practices.

7. Critical examination of assumptions in decision-making.

It is **not** enough to teach particular decision making skills which relate to such **technical** areas as statistics, computers, network analysis, and a cost/effectiveness approach. These are better learnt against a background which **examines** the nature of managerial decision-making. Thus it is necessary to **look** at the problems of rationality and predictability in a political context, the notions of efficiency, effectiveness, rationality, and the significance of who makes particular decisions and who is affected by them. In this way there can be a consideration of appropriate decision models in the decision-making process.

8. Student assessment based on student development

In both the MSc and the Diploma a certain minimum standard must be reached but **assessment** is **finally** related to individual student development. There are no written examination papers. Students are assessed on the basis of written assignments produced during the course and on the project which is taken as evidence of what has actually happened in a real situation. The main problem for us has been to define what a student has to do in order to be failed. (Obviously we hope students will not fail - but it is as well to be prepared). This is particularly difficult in a situation where **success** can depend on the application of personal skills in a difficult situation.

9. A continuously evolving programme

The background paper has already outlined the way in which staff are encouraged to develop as a team. We hope that we are therefore able to adapt to changes which individual members of the team may wish to make to the programme. In a continuously changing situation problems of balance, pace and sequence are always present.

III How are our education management activities legitimated?

Basically our legitimation comes from two sources: firstly, official support provides us with the necessary conditions of legitimation, and secondly our credibility in the market place gives us sufficient conditions for legitimation.

Necessary conditions therefore include:

1. Approval from the Principal of the Polytechnic, the Board of Studies for the School of Business and Management Studies within the Polytechnic, our head of department. These people will have to commit resources: i.e. staff, time, rooms, money, secretarial help.
2. Approval from the Regional Advisory Council. Following a submission to the Council from the Academic Board of the Polytechnic permission is granted to run a course, on the condition that a certain minimum number of students are enrolled. (If a course is not mounted, or if the number of students is too small then permission is revoked.)
3. Recognition by the Department of Education and Science. This enables students who come on our programme - or who are accepted on to other 'recognized' long courses - to come on full salary.

However, although these conditions are necessary - and all our Polytechnic colleagues here will have to fulfil the same conditions for their long courses - they do not guarantee a continuing source of students without which further development and further commitment of resources are impossible. A supply of students is guaranteed only by credibility in the market place. Do students want to come? Do they and their superordinates see our activities as legitimate? How can we show that our courses are as worthwhile as we believe them to be? This, if you like is 'our' education management problem. Sufficient conditions which help to establish our credibility therefore include:

1. Students' improved managerial competence in schools, colleges and local authority offices, both in real terms and as perceived by colleagues;
2. Enhancement of students' career prospects as a result of knowledge and skills acquired and of qualifications;
3. Course credibility in terms of recruiting students of high ability, seniority and career potential;
4. Course credibility in terms of recruiting sufficient numbers of students to generate increased commitment of Polytechnic resources;
5. Course credibility in terms of validation from the CNAAC;
6. Staff credibility in terms of experience, publications, research and reputation;
7. The development of research programmes to support the teaching programmes and develop them;
8. The development of consultancy and short course programmes;
9. Support from external agencies such as the Social Science Research Council who will support students on certain approved courses.

Credibility is incremental - one thing leads to another you might say. Two factors have been of great importance in helping, to a certain degree, the establishment of the conditions listed above. These are, firstly, the political will within the Polytechnic to create high level courses. Besides our own MSc in Education Management within the School of Business and Management Studies there are MSc courses in Organisation Development and in Management Information Systems; secondly, there has been a consistent policy to create an education management team rather than a collection of individuals who do not relate academically.

The establishment of the kind of credibility we have already outlined assumes a close relationship with schools, colleges and local education authorities. (We are particularly fortunate in having enthusiastic support from our own local education authority.)

IV What are the significant points of this discussion?

As we have stated already the key to successful teaching is the mutual development of theory and practice. To ensure the facilities for real practice we need to have active co-operation from schools and local education authorities - another management problem for us. This means that firstly, we have to generate an institutional commitment to the programme so that our students can do their projects. Secondly, we have to secure co-operation for field studies, working parties, access for research purposes. This is given at present - and will continue to be given - only if we can show that what we do is useful and has a pay-off for the institution concerned. Similarly we have to demonstrate to local education authorities who send us students on full salary that the programme has a pay-off for them. To this end we consult with senior advisors and chief education officers who send us students so that we can adapt the programme in the light of changing needs - and so that they have a clear idea of what we do. Recently, for example, we discovered that one local education authority did not believe in "management" (a sinister, calculating cheeseparating influence) they believed in "creativity". The sad thing was that they did not realise that the climate for creativity can be managed - if that is what you want. Thus we dare not allow ourselves to become isolated academics - what we provide has to be seen to work.

For any good points in this paper we have to acknowledge the help of the other seven members of our team; especially Len Watson. Any faults are, of course, our own."

PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT
- THE FRENCH PERSPECTIVE

I THE TRAINING OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

J Baffaut,
Professor, Department
of Educational
Technology, INAS.

"All educational administrators in France are civil servants and they all begin their careers by taking a competitive examination. If the candidates sitting the examination are students, they can undertake preparatory work for the examination, although not at INAS. If they are already employed in the civil service, it is possible for INAS to offer preparatory courses for them, but in fact this rarely happens. Following the examination, successful recruits are appointed to a particular job at a particular level. At this stage they begin to receive training for their careers in the civil service. The reasons why the competitive examination precedes rather than follows training are purely historical - the examination was devised to allow non-specialists to enter the civil service at a time when France was very short of civil servant administrators. The situation has now changed and there is no longer any shortage, but the examination nevertheless remains. It tests people's general level of culture and knowledge. For example, as well as questions on the educational system and the types of institutions within it, candidates may be asked to discuss current affairs. The situation in Portugal was a topic entrants were asked to discuss in a recent oral examination.

Once admitted and following initial training recruits are given jobs. During their working careers they will have further periods of training mostly in the form of short courses. In many countries, France and Britain included, this training is not always given, and when it is provided, is not always successful. A particular aim of training is of course to enable people to know their jobs, make them familiar with the procedures they need to apply, the rules and regulations and the techniques of applying these rules and regulations. But until now the general practice in France - as elsewhere - has been to learn these things on the job. This may be practical, but it is not training in any sense. It is work, and there is simply not sufficient time for people to stop and reflect upon what they are doing.

The type of training which is given by INAS remains closely linked in several ways to training on the job. INAS seeks to train people to be competent in their work from early on, and therefore gives them first the minimum amount of information which is necessary for them to do their jobs effectively. One reason why people are not always effective is that they are afraid of what they are being asked to be, or do not expect to be effective. For this reason, INAS gives training not only in administrative techniques, but in human relations - how to work with others and make effective a group of colleagues or subordinates. Initial training is therefore an ideal method of smoothing the way for administrative change. The essential factor is that the need for this initial training is recognised generally - otherwise it simply becomes the fairly useless training on the job that was traditionally provided in any case.

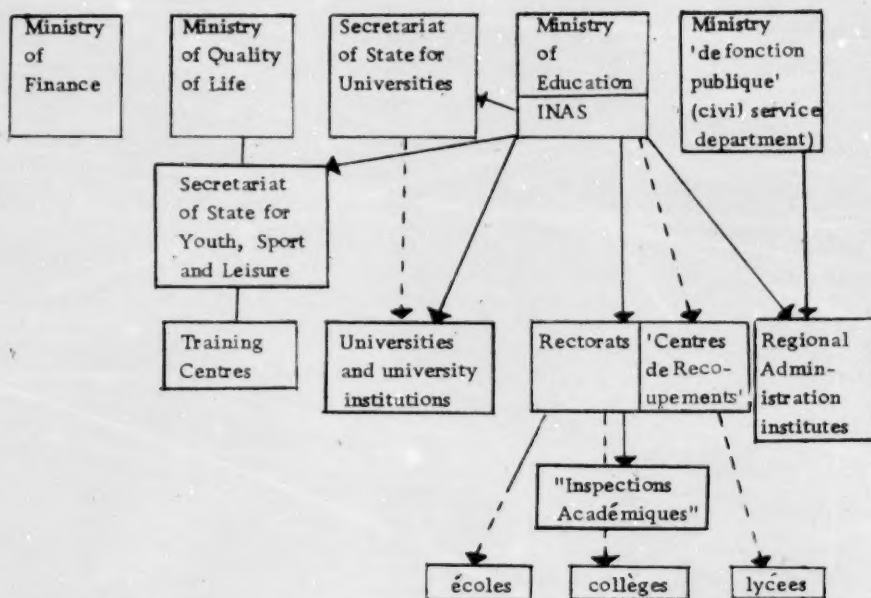
For people who already have some experience (two to four years) in their jobs, INAS provides the opportunity for them to leave their posts for a while, reflect on what they have been doing, propose changes in the way they do their jobs, and ask for further training which they feel necessary. These periods of further training are also useful for bringing out themes and areas of interest which should in their turn be dealt with during the period of initial training. Since INAS is particularly anxious to train people to be rapidly effective in their work, those who train the new entrants in initial training are people who have themselves just undertaken a period of further training.

In both types of training which INAS provides, the people who receive it cannot expect any promotion or improvement in their career opportunities simply as a result of having undertaken training. Training is quite independent of promotion in the career structure.

In the periods of further training, there is no need for any of the course to include practical experience, because people undergoing training already have this in their jobs. In the initial training part of the time is spent in a 'centre de recoupement' - an institution rather like Coombe Lodge - and part is spent on practical experience in a relevant establishment. The staff of the centres de recoupement are themselves practising civil servants for the Ministry of Education and furthermore, INAS tries to ensure that the theoretical training is given by the same people who are in charge of the practical part of the training.

Administrators in office at the Ministry of Education or holding other administrative posts outside the schools, whether in Paris or in the regions, have always been trained separately and in a very different way from administrators who work in schools and teachers. One of the main problems for INAS has been to provide a link - a possibility for communication - between training given to teachers and administrators working in schools and that given to people carrying out administrative functions elsewhere. The opportunity INAS offers for practising civil servants and new entrants to reflect on what they are doing and discuss matters with colleagues working in other places is a valuable and much appreciated experience."

"I intend to speak about one specific sort of training given by INAS for one specific sort of civil servant, but I think it would be useful, nevertheless, to briefly outline the structure and interrelationships between the different organisations in which civil servants may be called upon to work, as set out in the diagram below.



The five boxes at the top of the diagram show the various ministries or secretariats of state in which, by and large, the attachés (the category of civil servant about whom I shall speak) are likely to work. These civil servants are products of the Regional Administration Institutes.

* It is advisable that this address by M. Gavard is read in conjunction with the paper he circulated to conference members which is published in Vol. 8. No.12.

On the left of the diagram is the Ministry of Finance. The civil servants with whom I am concerned do not in fact work in this Ministry, but it is included because it has a role to play in what I shall speak about. The other Ministries in the diagram are the Civil Service Department (which may be a ministry or a secretariat according to the rank of the person at its head), the Ministry for the Quality of Life, within which there is a Secretary of State for Youth, Sport and Leisure; the Secretariat of State for the Universities and the Ministry of Education.

It is the direct responsibility of the Civil Service Department to administer the Regional Administration Institutes. The other boxes in the diagram show the training centres for teachers working for the Secretariat of State for Youth Sport and Leisure; the Universities and University institutions, INAS and the 26 Rectorats which are regional offices, and Inspections Académiques which are at Département level. Below these are the junior and elementary schools, collèges teaching children between the ages of 11 and 15 and the lycées for pupils between 16 and 19 years of age.

Perhaps I might now make a few brief comments on the paper I prepared for this conference. The first section describes the two institutions about which I shall speak, INAS and the Regional Administration Institutes. INAS is concerned with the initial and further training of officials who deal with the administration of education departments and establishments. The Regional Administration Institutes train attachés - civil servants who will work throughout the civil service, not just those concerned with education. There are four of these Regional Administration Institutes - at Lille, Lyons, Nantes and Metz and the first was founded in 1971. INAS was set up in 1962.

The second section of my paper deals with the duties of student administrators. The three categories of civil servant are all of the same grade. First, there are the attachés who work in the central administration which in fact means the Ministry of Education; secondly, there are attachés of university administration who work in the Recteur's office in the Rectorats at the level of the Academy or at Département level in the Inspections Académiques; thirdly, there are the civil servants who work in the university finance departments and are responsible for material and financial management of the establishment.

The next sections are concerned with recruitment for entry. Every recruit takes a competitive examination. Since 1971 the intention has been for this to be administered and organised by the Civil Service Department with new entrants going straight into the Regional Administration Institutes. Before 1971 the Ministry of Education organised its own competitive examination for recruits, and at present we are still in a period of transition and a number of examinations are still organised by the Ministry of Education. Shortly, however, all entrants to the civil service will be examined and trained by the Regional Administration Institutes, and their number will increase from four to six.

The fifth section of the paper is simply a syllabus of the first year of the two year course in the Regional Administration Institute. The first year is a general training because at this stage the trainee might enter any of the Ministries. The second year of the course is a specialised training for the Ministry in which the trainee will work.

The sixth section of my paper points out some of the differences in attitude and approach between INAS and the Regional Administration Institutes. The former Head of INAS was opposed to the training of civil servants who would eventually work in the Ministry of Education being undertaken by anyone other than the Ministry of Education or institutions which were part of it. He felt that the administrative duties which they would undertake were specific to education and could not be adequately prepared for in other Ministries. In contrast to this view was the belief of the French Minister of the Civil Service that on the model of the École Nationale d'Administration it was a good idea for all civil servants to be trained together in similar institutions so that they would all have the same general view of their functions. Given this difference of opinion, it was necessary after 1971 and the creation of the Regional Administration Institutes to negotiate, and this led to an understanding underpinned by contract that part of the second year of training of people who will eventually be working at the Ministry of Education should be carried out by INAS, while the remainder of the course takes place in the Regional Administration Institutes.

This training which INAS gives during the second year falls into four parts. The first is given in 'centres de recoupements' which are regional centres linked to INAS and attached to the Rectorat. This is a four month course in matters specifically concerned with education. The second part of the training is practical experience either in a school or one of the administrative offices connected with education. Thirdly, there is two months practical experience in some aspect of administration which is unconnected with education. Finally, after a month's holiday, there are three final months of practical experience in which the trainees have to prove that they are able to do a specific job effectively."

"The training of secondary school head teachers has been compulsory in France for the last five years. I think that this was because after the events of May 1968 we realised that schools were not simple places where knowledge was transmitted from the teacher to the pupils, but places in which many people had an interest - the pupils of course, and the parents. Therefore people in charge of the schools should have a training which differed from that of teachers. Training became compulsory, but it was decided that no body of 'expert' trainers should be set up. Instead, people who were actually doing the job were to be asked to train others. In 1971 the Minister agreed that in each 'académie' (équipe académique de la vie scolaire) there were people interested in what goes on within the schools. Therefore, they were given two functions: firstly to consider what goes on inside schools, particularly with regard to the participation of pupils and parents and the organisation of work during the week or school year; secondly, the training of head teachers.

However, not all head teachers are trained in the Équipes Académiques. Even within the post of head teacher there are many different categories. Training is given to heads of lycées, and CES (comprehensive schools) and deputy heads of lycées, but not to deputy heads of CES nor, until this year, to heads of CEG - a type of rural comprehensive school, despite the fact that they have the same work responsibilities. The training consists of both initial and further training during the first year in post and does not lead to promotion.

The Équipes Académiques are small bodies - for example, at Rennes we have seven members. The nominal head is the Directeur - usually an Inspecteur d'Académie. Most of the members are headmasters or deputy heads but there is also one inspecteur who is a kind of adviser for primary schools and a conseiller d'éducation (who is the head of all the surveillants - the people who care for pupils when they are not in class). In addition, my team has a careers guidance officer. Thus the Équipes Académiques comprise many types of personnel. Most of my team has been trained by INAS, but, we are totally independent and guard this independence jealously.

* As with Mr. Gavard's address, it is preferable to read these comments in connection with the paper prepared for the conference which is published in Vol. 8. No. 12.

The Equipes Academiques experience two types of problem. Firstly, that the trainers themselves have not received sufficient training. Secondly, that it is hard to do an ordinary job and be a trainer at the same time. This means that members of the Equipes Academiques frequently leave after a short time, and there is a constant problem of renewal of members. Another difficulty is that because each of the team members has his own school or department it is hard for them to get together, yet to form a united coherent team it is essential that they know each other well. The same problem exists at a national level between the twenty six Academies. The system they operate is supposed to be a national one, but it is difficult to achieve standardisation. There are two opposing tendencies among the Academies: to emphasise the need for stability and to emphasise the need for change - which one they take depends on their perspective of the educational crisis.

This would bring about new difficulties and new questions would arise: should members of the équipes academiques then become full-time trainers?

But out of some of the problems will come developments. One I would emphasise is of trainees being conscripts rather than volunteers. The difficulty will be that the criteria of the nominating body will not necessarily be complementary to those making the decisions in the field. Should selection therefore be made not before, but at the end of training? All that has been said above would then have to be drastically reviewed.

SYNDICATE REPORTS

The syndicate groups, each composed of a mixture of French and English participants, presented reports based on their discussion sessions during the week at a plenary session, which was followed by a reply from Mr. Peretti which brought the conference to a close. The syndicate reports covered four main topics: models for the training of administrators; the relationship in course design between discipline, problems, skills and teaching methods; evaluation; and coherence.

Identification of Models for the Training of Administrators

The group noted that innovation within the education system always came from outside that system, from political and economic systems. Because schools tend to be inward-looking, especially in France, the training given to headteachers must enable them to ensure that the school remains open to the outside world. Neither in the UK nor in France is society unanimous in setting objectives for the education system that are coherent or recognised as valid by all social groups. The education system itself is unable to set for itself objectives which are either clear or compatible with each other. The education system and within it the schools, has split. The pressures which determine the objectives of the education system are often hidden, so the system can often appear irrational. The English education system is less resistant to social pressures than the French one, which withdraws into itself so that pressures from outside are felt in other ways. A question which must be asked is whether education managers can be considered as guardians or custodians in the sense that they are responsible for the stock of human and material resources. It seemed to the syndicate that education managers, whether they are civil servants or teachers, have a relatively unimportant role to play in the change processes - their role is, above all, to be facilitators. They must be able to analyse the education system, the change process and the various social pressures, and in doing so consult relevant social groups.

Focussing on the issue of the relevance of models used for training educational administrators, the syndicate asked whether specific models for training existed in France, where education management training has been greatly influenced by training practices used in the civil service, or in the UK where education management training appears to be based upon management in the private sector.

The group asked whether we can transfer the techniques and principles of general management to the area and issues of education, bearing in mind that the education system at present embodies a great number of irrational elements and unpredictable evolutionary processes.

Models for training could be seen in two ways: either as ways of fitting the administrator for work in the education system, or as ideal or theoretical models.

The group noted finally that models for education management training must be specific to the system, whether English or French, to which they are to be applied. Tensions seemed to be greater in the French system. Education management training must enable the manager to analyse the system and to act despite these tensions and at the same time, ensure that the education system is not cut off from society at large.

The Relationship in Course Design between Disciplines, Problems, Skills and Teaching Methods.

The syndicate reported that course design lies between two polar extremes. In one a number of disciplines are presented giving the student a body of knowledge from which he selects in carrying out his managerial function. In the other, the trainer assumes much responsibility for this selection process by identifying main problems and presenting only those aspects of discipline relevant to them and the acquisition of necessary skills. The second approach offers considerable economies but presents difficulties related to the imprecise nature of managerial roles and behaviour. The former approach is necessary for courses drawing members from different managerial jobs, but is an inefficient training method from the point of view of cost.

The absence of a recognised body of management theory and the lack of academic respectability of education and training for management was deplored by the group, who did not feel such a view was justified. Training courses did not necessarily abandon the disciplines - the contribution of the training was to draw upon them selectively. The group recognised dangerous pressures arising from the need to satisfy validating bodies, eg. CNAAB, and to seek highest possible academic gradings for training courses.

It was noted that individuals were subjected to stress when involved in situations of organisational change, even when initiating the change. There was often a 're-entry' problem when managers returned to their organisations after a course of training, for which perhaps formal provision should be made.

The syndicate thought that any initial training should be followed by several brief 'reunion' courses well spaced in time. These would provide valuable information exchange among trainers and trainees and support for stress during periods of organisational change. For similar reasons it was also suggested that the most effective management training occurred within a sandwich course.

The group acknowledged the great need for interchange of ideas and experience in the educational management between the institutions concerned.

Evaluation

The syndicate which considered evaluation believed that it should be an integral part of training, and its aim should be the development of participants.

It should be related to knowledge, performance in the training situation and the development of personal attitudes. These qualities were particularly important in the training of educational administrators for two reasons, the group felt. First, in order to develop among heads of establishments an approach which is open to the notion of development within the educational system and suited to new needs among pupils and society. Secondly, in order to enable heads of establishments to make accurate and as far as possible objective appraisals of existing situations.

The process of evaluation is beset by a number of difficulties. The relevant variables must be identified, measured and inter-related. Judgements in terms of assessment are apt to be clouded by reactionary thinking, by favouritism or by inadequate appraisal of problems which may lead to organisational shortcomings being attributed to deficiencies in operational personnel.

Evaluation should seek to avoid the notion of assigning blame or guilt and the notion of it being a sanction and of those evaluated being 'rejected' by their assessors. It should seek, on the contrary, to support personal and institutional development, to increase the possibilities of integration both of the different domains of knowledge and of diverse points of view. It should institute a system of warnings so that individuals are aware of the risks and possible consequences of their actions. At the same time it should seek to develop the capacity for foresight and for implementing change on a longer and longer scale.

The evaluation process should be continuous and should be closely related to tasks which will, or which are likely to, arise within the educational system.

What kinds of devices are best suited for evaluative purposes? They should permit objective (ie numerate or statistic) measurement of individual phenomena. They should allow development to take place and be conducive to this process. The instruments should be suitable at any stage in the proceedings for self-evaluation, evaluation of one student by another, evaluation together with a constant, and for statistical evaluation. Among the techniques used by INAS are straightforward questions, questions designed to produce an 'awakening' response in participants, sentences to complete, conversations between a sample of the group undergoing training (this can be in front of the group as a whole or the results can be transmitted to the whole group later), conversation of one or several of the people undergoing training with a trainer or trainers, systematic analysis of the content of a conversation of an expert with each person, the Delphic method of forecasting, attitude roles, Q-sorts, the Mizumi and Wile techniques, evaluation of trainers by the trained, elaboration of projects submitted to experts and exercises aimed at bringing out dispositions within the group.

Coherence

In considering coherence within and between teams of trainers in educational management programmes the syndicate analysed characteristics of both trainers and programmes. It was felt that the greatest search for coherence seemed to be taking place in the UK.

The group identified four problems of conceptual and methodological coherence in educational management programmes.

Problem 1: There is no established body of knowledge or practice which may be called educational management.

Resolutions: INAS produces case studies, information sheets and booklets using own staff and other experts, and these are used on courses at INAS and its associate centres. Through attendance by trainers at INAS courses uniformity is encouraged. Through the CNAAP, conferences of educational management trainees, The British Educational Administration Society and publications, some degree of coherence is achieved in both methodology and conceptual frameworks.

Problem 2: Difficulties occur when differences arise between individuals in teams with regard to concepts, approaches, loyalties to the world of their subject and loyalties to the organisation which provides the base for educational management programmes.

Resolutions: Efficient chairmanship and acceptance and tolerance of ambiguities, although the danger of blandness has to be avoided.

Problem 3: The fusion of dichotomies found in management ie. Systems versus Human Relations and Education (ie Psychology) versus Sociology, creates conceptual and methodological problems.

Resolutions: INAS programmes and compulsory attendance at them in effect reduces the problem. In England the variety of bases used for the work may create environments in which the various approaches may blossom, which raises problems of providing different experiences for different students.

Problem 4: The dangers of an artificial coherence through 'official' publication and dissemination of documents, material and recommendations as to method and so on.

Resolutions: The danger is not perceived to be great in England since there is a wide range of sources of material and opinion. In France there is acknowledgement that INAS documents may be accepted as gospel - and this is not their intention."

CONFERENCE CONCLUSION

After the presentation of the syndicate reports, the conference was brought to a close with an address by Mr Peretti:-

A de Peretti,
Director of
Research and
Teaching
Methods, INAS.

"I will begin with an admission. I have not seen or heard everything that has taken place during this week, and I will not put into practice everything that I have heard. But I have liked everything I have heard and draw from this the simple conclusion that we are on the right track. I believe that our exchanges this week have confirmed us in what we are doing. We have been able to see more clearly certain areas which are peculiar to each country and certain general problems which face us all.

shared
problems

To begin with these general problems. Mr Beaussier spoke of a 'community of problems'. My personal view is that we have a great number of shared problems and that they are developing in an interesting way.

One of our shared problems, as Colin Turner reminded us in his paper, is that we are all faced with an increasing demand for cultural consumption. This is no longer confined simply to young people but is spreading into society at large, leading to such developments as 'education permanent'. A difficulty is that this increasing demand is unpredictable and there is a displacement of choice phenomena. Certain sorts of education which were once very much in demand are now less so, while there are new growth areas emerging. This oscillation in demand shows clearly the uncertainty of young people and others regarding their own needs.

This uncertainty has a number of consequences. First, there is the difficulty of administration and management of education and the phenomenon of multiple rupture of the education system. For example, at the same time as demanding to stay longer at school, young people are demanding to be let out into the world. Young people and adults alike feel that they are wanted by a multiplicity of different establishments and no longer know what choices to make.

In considering this increasing cultural consumption we must also be aware of the inequality of the means made available. In this context we can see battles, wars even, being waged from different quarters because of the education system itself and also because of political systems affecting the situation.

This leads to a second general aspect of the problem of increasing demand and demand from new quarters - the difficulty of replying to the question 'who asks the questions about the education system and who clarifies these questions?' If I understand the situation correctly, in both Britain and France everyone, in his own way, asks these questions. The questions come from all quarters and a balance therefore has to be achieved between the different question-asking agents. This process has been the transition from a society of civilisations based upon order to one based upon equilibrium. It seems that we can identify here a characteristic analogous to Macluen's concept - the message is the medium: the medium is the message - an equation which can be turned both ways round. In a civilisation of this kind of complexity grows up as different elements are activated from all sides. One can no longer solve problems in an ordered simple way but has to work through successive approximations and be aware constantly of these and antitheses. For example, when we think about innovation, we are immediately confronted by pressures to return to a previous static situation - as with the Black Papers. This happens in France as well as in the UK and therefore we have to bear in mind the influence of useful traditional and also archaic phenomena within the education system.

Here we come up against the difficulty of certain types of school having higher prestige than others, and certain sorts of education preventing other possibilities emerging. While claiming that they are innovative, new institutions make subtle attempts to imitate more tradition establishments.

Thus, in those areas where we strive to introduce models based upon equilibrium we find models based upon order. This has the effect that opposition from one group of teachers or another to one sort of education becomes more radical with the result that we feel we are in a contradictory or 'emulsifying' situation.

Everything seems disorganised. One might say the situation is Oedipean, incestuous, disrespectful. It certainly makes our educators feel guilty, or left out, and a common problem for us is to help them not to have such feelings. I believe that one of the reasons for the rigidity of teachers and their opinions is that they feel guilty when face to face with public opinion and the general public has found that its criticism of the educational world is a useful way of relieving its more general anxieties. We could take a more extreme hypothesis - that there could be a change in the class struggle away from an orientation towards politics and economics to a focus upon cultural power. The example of China is worth considering in this context. I think it is quite probable that the role of the teacher will change from that of guardian of the cultural power to the manager of its diffusion.

Another aspect of the problem is that we have to reduce the gaps between opposing elements precisely because we are emerging from a society based upon order to one based upon equilibrium. We have already expressed the need to reduce the gap between theory and practice - between educational research and education in action - to reduce the rhetoric and get down to the nitty-gritty - to reduce the distance at which training can actually place people from their real jobs of work. We have already mentioned that on emerging from training some managers and teachers immediately enter into

conflict and there is a difficult problem in the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired during training to the job. In the same way, we feel it necessary to reduce social inequality. We are all looking for ways to increase equality of opportunity in education and in wider contexts. I think equality of opportunity is made more difficult to achieve - or at least made into a more lengthy process - because we think of solutions in terms of concepts which are already out of date such as elitism. For example we thought of comprehensive schools in terms of grammar schools and have ended up with a contradiction.

**national
problems**

I should now like to comment on certain aspects in which I think our two countries differ.

First, there is the role of universities in training administrators. It is clear that in the UK the universities have a role to play in this, and in so far as they are independent the situation is different from that in France. At the moment it seems clear that the battle regarding training staff and administrators will be fought on the issue of how training will be given to them outside and independent from their universities. In this respect the concepts are quite different so I should like to discuss the concept of the self-supporting structure, which is reflected in the strategy which we have adopted at INAS. We wish the training of educational administrators to be given by people who themselves hold posts or responsibility at all levels in educational administration.

This means that we see our role at INAS as providing the means or being consultants of the trainers who are actually working in the field. However, I think the difference between our two countries in this respect is probably more apparent than real.

Another point of difference between the English and French systems is concerned with autonomy - both of institutions and personnel. As Professor Ford said in his paper, there is more rhetoric than reality in this difference. He asked whether autonomy provoked initiative or caution and anxiety, and added that doing away with administrative duties might paradoxically lead to permitting a good deal of manoeuvre for the individual establishment. On this question of autonomy, we may feel we are either more independent than we are, or less so according to our country. In France, for example, teachers are convinced of their impotence and so during training we try to convince them that they really are stronger than they think.

Perhaps I might now say something about credibility. It seems that in France we do not have to fight in order to appear credible (at least at the level of INAS), while in the UK the competitive situation is obvious. However, I think that this competitive element does exist in France, although it is hidden, and it is one of the factors which I think we will have to explore with our colleagues when we return to France. I think that such struggle is useful, and one of the benefits of comparative education is that different countries can help each other to bring out into the open what is hidden in one system but visible in the other, as in this case.

acceptance
of differences

This brings me to my conclusion which relates to the similarities in our experiences. Differences in our two civilisations are not in fact definite or absolute. They can give way to a realism leading to dialectic processes. A rigid administration which constantly tries to defend itself does not see that contradiction and differences are in fact a support. For example, the aggression of the young adolescent is necessary to the teaching institution or the family if they know how to accommodate it. All apparently negative approaches emanating from one or other part of the community do not have a destructive influence. They may be channelled and structured to create a dynamic equilibrium in management. The acceptance of a different opinion or even a contradiction is a way of breaking down barriers which divide communities. As teachers and administrators we have to prove this to the students and pupils in our teaching institutions.

innovation in
education
management

My last point is a subjective one. Jenny Mundy asks, in her paper, which theory is best fitted for education managers. For me, the answer is the humanist theory of administration, and of education management in particular. The education manager has to make decisions which cannot assume that young people are abstract beings without emotions. While he has to be firm, he must not be rigid. He must know how to take the best course of action by weighing up the various structures and constraints. He must not take decisions blindly, but do so in order to allay young people's anxieties. At the present time, the constraints young people feel most acutely are those of the social world and these constraints are the most fundamental of the social contract. The education manager has to make use of what is relevant of the old practices, and innovate all the time. We have so many constraints upon us, but the plea made to us by the young is to invent for them a new kind of freedom."

PARTICIPANTS

Members from France

- M Baffaut, Professor at INAS, in the Department of Educational Technology.
M Beausnier, Professor at INAS, responsible for comparative educational administration.
Mle Biraud, 'Administrative Officer' and Deputy Registrar at the University of Rennes.
M Bon, 'Inspecteur d'Académie', Acting Director of INAS.
Mle Delclaux, Documentalist at INAS.
M Gavard, 'Chief Administrative Officer' responsible for general administrative and university administration courses at INAS.
M Gauzes, Professor responsible at INAS for university administrators.
Y Martin, Teacher at University of Paris 8.
Mle Navarro, Professor at INAS in the Department of Comparative Educational Administration.
Mme Petitgand, Headmistress of the Lycée Hector Berlioz at Vincennes.
M de Peretti, Director of Research and Teaching Methods at INAS.
Mle Scudeller, Professor in the Department dealing with Headteachers and Deputies at INAS.
M Soubry, 'Inspecteur d'Académie' at Rennes.
R Wattiaux, Headteacher of the Lycée d'État Louis Pasteur at Lille.
M Wilbout, Administrator in the Department of general administrative and university administration courses at INAS.

Members from England

- W Alcock, Senior Lecturer, Behavioural Studies, Teesside Polytechnic.
D J Birch, Lecturer, Finance, Loughborough University of Technology.
R Connell, Senior Lecturer & Course Tutor, Educational Management, Manchester Polytechnic.
K Dadds, Principal Lecturer, Educational Management, Trent Polytechnic.
J L Davies, Head of Department of Management to the Public Services, Anglian Regional Management Centre, Chelmsford. North East London Polytechnic.
G R Haywood-Hicks, Director of Studies, Education Department, Department of Public Services Management, Bristol Polytechnic.
E James, Senior Lecturer, Education Management, Bristol Polytechnic.
H O Jenkins, Senior Lecturer, Education Management, Glamorgan Polytechnic.
Mrs B Key, Senior Lecturer, Education Technology, Garnett College, ILEA.
T C Lea, Course Tutor, Education Management, Brighton Polytechnic.
K McGuinness, British Council, Paris.
R Mercer, Lecturer, Educational Management, Sheffield Polytechnic.
Miss J Tait, Co-ordinator, Educational Development Unit, Brighton Polytechnic.
R Thackwell, Principal Lecturer, Education, The Polytechnic of the South Bank.
Dr Patricia Trainer, Principal Lecturer, Education Management, Anglian Regional Management Centre, Chelmsford. North East London Polytechnic.
R C Williams, HMI Staff Inspector for External Relations (Europe), Department of Education and Science.
D E Wright, Senior Lecturer, Educational Management, Sunderland Polytechnic.

Visiting Lecturers

- M Baffaut, Professor at INAS, in the Department of Educational Technology.
Professor B Ford, Director: College and Further Professional Studies, School of Education,
Bristol University.
M de Peretti, Director of Research and Teaching Methods, INAS.
M Soubry, 'Inspecteur d'Académie' at Rennes.

Course Tutors

- M Beausier, Professor at INAS. Comparative Educational Administration.
M Gavard, Chief Administrative Officer, Administrative and University Administration
Courses, INAS.
Miss J Mundy, Senior Lecturer, Educational Management, Sheffield Polytechnic.
Mlle Navarro, Professor at INAS, Department of Comparative Educational Administration.
D L Parkes, Head of Resources Group, Coombe Lodge.
C M Turner, Staff Tutor, Coombe Lodge.

Translators

- Mrs M Windsor, Sheffield.
Miss C Loveless, Bristol Polytechnic.
Miss P Moore, Bristol Polytechnic.
Miss L Osborne, Bristol Polytechnic.
Miss F Rait, Bristol Polytechnic.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- G Baron, & W Taylor, eds Educational administration and the social sciences. London, Athlone Press, 1969.
- Coombe Lodge Report The management of college departments - change and development. Vol.7, No:2. Blagdon, Bristol. Further Education Staff College, 1974.
- R Glatter, Management development for the education profession. A report to the education service on purposes, progress and possibilities. London, G. Harrap, 1972.
- A S Gover, & D L Parkes, Academic government in France. The government and management of French educational institutions. In: College management. Readings and Cases. A staff development handbook. Vol.4. Edited by D L Parkes, Blagdon, Bristol, Coombe Lodge, Further Education Staff College, 1974.
- H L Gray, Training in the management of education. Educational Administration Bulletin. Summer 1972. Vol.1, No.1, pp 1-9.
- M Kogan, & W Van der Eyken, County Hall. The role of the chief education officer. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, Penguin Education, 1973.
- G Fowler, et al eds. Decision making in British education. London, Heinemann Educational, 1973.
- A set book from the Open University, Faculty of Educational Studies, accompanying the second level course, 'Decision making in British education systems' (E221), the units of which are set out below:
 - The Open University E221 Unit 1 Introduction to decision-making in education prepared by Vincent Houghton.
 - Unit 2 Central government of education. 1. Policy formation prepared by Gerald Fowler.
 - Units 3 & 4 Central government of education. 2.
 - Unit 3 Policy, finance and management.
 - Unit 4 United Kingdom?prepared by Robert Bell and others.
 - Units 5 - 7 Local government of education.
 - Unit 5 The Local education authority.
 - Unit 6 Re-organisation: Cumbria.
 - Unit 7 Corporate planning: Coventry.prepared by Gerald Fowler and others.
 - Units 8 - 10 Politics, philosophy and economics in education.
 - Unit 8 Social concepts in education.
 - Unit 9 Political concepts in education.
 - Unit 10 Economics and education.prepared by Gerald Fowler and others.
 - Units 11 & 12 Decision-making in the school.
 - Unit 11 The curriculum and decision-making.

Unit 12 Decision-making in schools. Decision-making in British education systems.

prepared by Tony Bates and others.

Unit 13 Community involvement in decision-making.

prepared by Colin Morgan.

Unit 14 Decision-making in post-school education.

prepared by Gerald Fowler and Vincent Houghton.

Unit 15 Introduction to planning and decision models prepared by

Tony Gear and Albert Melo.

Unit 16 Recurrent education - an alternative future?

prepared by Vincent Houghton and others.

Milton Keynes, Open University Press, 1974.

Society of
Education
Officers

Management in the education Service

Challenge and response. An SEO occasional paper.

Coventry, Society of Education Officer, 1974.

The Further Education Staff College was established on 15th November, 1960, with the principal objective of improving the efficiency of further education establishments. Since 1963 the college has been organising study conferences at which senior personnel in education, industry and government are given the opportunity of discussing and analysing developments in further education, and of making recommendations for action and enquiry.

Study conference members meet both in plenary sessions to hear and discuss lectures and in syndicates to discuss specific topics and projects. Syndicate discussion may be augmented by the employment of expert witnesses, visits to other establishments, and simulation exercises in administration and personnel management.

In 1963 the college undertook the publication of Session Papers outlining the work of conferences, and in 1967 the College Report Service was instituted to publish documents on a number of issues relating to tertiary education.

Each year the Report Service publishes a volume of Reports which include accounts of the proceedings of selected study conferences, collections of papers and special reports. Subject matter covers the development of the objectives and instruments of further education; the inter-relationships between colleges, industry and other branches of education, specialised subject developments; college administration and management. Each volume contains approximately 1,000 pages, although the number of Reports in each volume may vary, ranging from 15 to 20 per year.

These Reports do not necessarily express the views either of individual conference members or of the Staff College.

A subscription to Volume 8 is available at £14. Further copies of individual Reports may be purchased by subscribers at 70p each, and non-subscribers may buy copies of individual Reports at £1.10 each. Retrospective subscriptions to earlier volumes remain fixed at the following rates:-

Volume 3	£10.50
Volumes 4, 5, 6 & 7	£12.00 each.

The cost of single editions are as follows:-

	<u>Subscribers</u>	<u>Non-Subscribers</u>
Reports from Volumes 1 & 2	25p	52p
" " Volume 3	52p	£1.00
" " Volumes 4, 5, 6 & 7	60p	£1.00

For further information and a catalogue of publications, please write to the Report Secretary at Coombe Lodge, Blagdon, Bristol, BS18 6RG, or telephone Blagdon (0761) 62503.

Previous Publications

- Vol 8 No 1** The College and its Customers
- 2** College Libraries
- 3** Biological Sciences in Advanced Further Education
- 4** The Development of FE I
- 5** The Development of FE II
- 6** The Development of FE III
- 7** The Development of FE IV
- 8** The Development of FE V
- 9** Polytechnic Perspectives
- 10** Developments in Teaching Education Management
- 11** A Handbook for College Governors
- 12** The Teaching of Educational Management in England and France — Part I